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THE WAR AND SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

One of the most noticeable things at the time of America's entrance into the war was the promptness with which the educational authorities of the country offered themselves and their institutions to the Government for whatever service could be rendered. From all sides, from educational bodies of a national character, from large and important institutions and prominent educators, came almost immediate expressions of eagerness to do all that their organizations or institutions could in the national emergency. Not less noticeable, however, was the fact that these representatives of the educational world did not know what best they could do for the national cause in the present circumstances. To the layman this admission must have been somewhat surprising. He knows that American educators are not wanting in powers of observation, and, to say the least, possess as much knowledge of world events as any other class of citizens; yet, three years after the great war had gripped most of the world, when many of its lessons were matters of history, they appeared not to know the one lesson most directly affecting themselves and which had long since been learned by their colleagues abroad.

The educators' patriotic offers were promptly acknowledged by the Government and in some instances accepted by the President personally, the general reply being that the educator's best service to his country was to keep the schools to the utmost of their efficiency. Like the mechanic who tried to enlist and was returned to his bench in the munitions factory, the educator was sent back to desk and classroom. But, as a

matter of fact, he returned to face a new situation; his tasks were no longer the same; entirely new conditions confronted him, for no phase of our common life was more promptly and directly affected by the war than that represented by the schools.

Upon the very declaration of war, long before the draft became operative, the schools were affected. The student bodies immediately began to dwindle, and before the end of that school year new conditions had set in. The changes it effected were more noticeable in the following fall, when all the larger institutions of college and university grade showed a registration in the upper classes far below that of the previous year.

Within the schools other changes were also noticeable. In the great universities military instruction and drill under official direction began at once. In many instances the Government overtook laboratory space or designated the technical schools for the preparatory courses of army scientists and technicians. Those under military age in many institutions enrolled in the food army and spent their vacation on the western farms to relieve the shortage of labor and contribute their most to the general welfare. In short, while the educator was sent back to his usual tasks, the situation had changed, and some of the war's effects had already set in.

Nor did the change affect higher education alone. From college and university it worked down to the high school, and even the elementary. One of the chief reasons, perhaps, was the shortage of labor, which has meant a necessary appeal to youths and boys to fill up the vacancies in the shops and trades. High wages have tempted boys to leave school even in instances when neither by enlistment nor draft had the family been deprived of wage-earners. This has gone on in certain industrial centers to a greater extent than most realize.

Now, almost simultaneously with the enforcement of the major draft, the colleges and universities open the scholastic year with a student army estimated at 255,000, and anyone who has seen the introduction of the new arrangements knows that these Student Army Training Corps are veritable camps. Along with this, more facilities for meeting the military needs in laboratory and engineering work have been taken over by

the Government; in short, military activities have been inaugurated in American higher schools on perhaps the largest scale in the history of any modern country. The educator's task in this department has been one of immediate adjustment to the changed conditions.

In the lower schools there has been just as real a change and corresponding adjustment, although, perhaps, it has not been as visible as in the higher. The war brought first a new and vital topic into school life. Children had to be informed of it, not only as to fact, but as to purpose. As was natural, the school became the information and news agency for the millions of embryo citizens, and it was not long before direct appeal was made to the latter to participate in the contemporary movements which the conflict has called forth.

It has been the school's office and duty to set the youthful mind aright on the question of conservation, to give that intelligent appreciation of the imperative necessity of economy in the individual, if the nation's power is to be used to the fullest. The public movements, consequently, in behalf of food and fuel conservation, in the interest of saving through Thrift and War Savings Stamps, have been as familiar to the school child as the citizen. Added to this was the patriotic and enthusiastic embrace by the child of the Red Cross activities, in many of whose drives the school children and their teachers took no inconspicuous part.

There has, therefore, never been any, even the slightest, doubt of the school's part in the war, whether this has meant the higher institutions or the lower schools. From the first days of volunteering their services to the present time, one year and a half after our entrance into the war, the schools of every grade have everywhere enthusiastically responded to the demand for direct service. Naturally, there has been a desire to do more than has been done. The government officers have had every evidence of it. Commissioner Claxton, for example, on May 22, 1917, said: "Many officers and teachers of all grades and kinds of schools have appealed to the Commissioner of Education for advice as to what policy should be pursued by the schools during the war. It is, I believe," he says, "the desire of those responsible for the policies of the schools that

they be made to serve the country most effectively in its time of need, and that in doing so they shall not fail in their great task of preparing for citizenship and for service to society, State and Nation in the future." Because of this, he recommended the publication by the Government of the pamphlet, "Suggestions for the Conduct of the Educational Institutions During the Continuance of the War, to the end that their educational efficiency may not be lowered, and that they may render the largest amount of service, both for the present and for the future." The general burden of the pamphlet is that, apart from the immediate and direct assistance which the schools of certain grade, as the universities and technical schools, may render the Government in the conduct of the war, "schools and other agencies of education must be maintained at whatever necessary cost and against all hurtful interference with their regular work, except as may be necessary for the national defense, which is, of course, our immediate task, and must be kept constantly in mind and have right of way everywhere and at all times. From the beginning of our participation in the war, we should avoid the mistakes which some other countries have made to their hurt and which they are now trying to correct.

"If the war should be long and severe, there will be great need in its later days for many young men and women of scientific knowledge, training and skill; and it may then be much more difficult than it is now to support our schools, to spare our children and youth from other service and to permit them to attend school. Therefore, no school should close its doors now or shorten its term unnecessarily."

He further recommended that all schools of whatever grade should remain open, with their full quota of officers and teachers. In August of the present year he came forward with the same advice more emphatically reiterated. "The President of the United States," he says, "and all who are most closely connected with him in the administration of the Government, and who are therefore most responsible for the conduct of the war, have frequently expressed the opinion that all schools—elementary schools, high schools, colleges, and universities—should be kept up to their normal standard of efficiency during

the war; that school-attendance and child-labor laws should be rigidly observed, and that all boys and girls who are prepared for it and can possibly do so should attend high school or college as a patriotic duty, unless called for some services which cannot be done so well by others. So frequently have they expressed this opinion and so constantly have they urged in effect, as the President has urged in so many words, that 'no boy or girl should have less opportunity for education because of the war,' that this has come to be known as the policy of the Administration on this subject.

"I wish to impress upon all school officers and teachers and upon all men and women of influence in their States and local communities the importance of doing all they can to make all the people understand this policy and to create such sentiment for it as will compel the fullest possible compliance with it. For this a higher sense of devotion to duty will be necessary than would be needed in normal times, because of the many temptations for other forms of service which are for the time more attractive."

And, again: "Every public officer entrusted with the support of public schools should know that Europe's lesson to the United States as a result of the war is *to keep the schools going;* to make education during and after the war better and more effective than it has ever been. There are before us now just two matters of supreme importance—to win the war for freedom, democracy, and peace, and to fit our schools and our children for life and citizenship in the new era which the war is bringing in."

France's message was reported by John H. Finley, Commissioner of Education of New York State, in his Report on French Schools in War Time, is as follows: "Do not let the needs of the hour, however demanding, or its burdens, however heavy, or its perils, however threatening, or its sorrows, however heartbreaking, make you unmindful of the defense of tomorrow, of those disciplines through which the individual may have freedom, through which an efficient democracy is possible, through which the institutions of civilization can be perpetuated and strengthened. Conserve, endure taxation and privation, suffer and sacrifice to assure to those whom you

have brought into the world that it shall be not only a safe but a happy place for them."

From England comes the message and warning of H. A. L. Fisher, President of the English Board of Education: "At the beginning of the war, when first the shortage of labor became apparent, a raid was made upon the schools—a great raid, a successful raid, a raid started by a large body of unreflecting opinion. The result of that raid upon the schools has been that hundreds of thousands of children in this country have been prematurely withdrawn from school and have suffered an irreparable damage—a damage which it will be quite impossible for us hereafter adequately to repair. That is a very grave and distressing symptom."

The above is corroborated by the Report of the English Committee on Juvenile Education in relation to employment after the war: "Any inquiry into education at the present juncture is big with issues of national fate. In the great work of reconstruction which lies ahead there are aims to be set before us which will try, no less searchingly than war itself, the temper and enduring qualities of our race; and in the realization of each and all of these, education, with its stimulus and discipline, must be our stand-by. We have to perfect the civilization for which our men have shed their blood and our women their tears; to establish new standards of value in our judgment of what makes life worth living; more wholesome and more restrained ideals of behavior and recreation; finer traditions of cooperation and kindly fellowship between class and class and between man and man. These are tasks for a nation of trained character and robust physique, a nation alert to the things of the spirit, reverential of knowledge, reverential of its teachers, and generous in its estimate of what the production and maintenance of good teachers inevitably cost."

All this advice, direction and appeal from the President and the highest spokesman of the Government in education has been meant in the first instance for the educators and teachers and through them for the public at large. Apparently, it was very much needed, and the fruits of it are already visible. From all sides come reports that the campaign for school attendance has been successful. The universities and colleges have in the army camps alone 255,000 young men, and attend-

ance at public and private high schools is reported to be above that of last year. The work of maintaining the campaign now remains. There should be no falling off during the year. And at this point the teachers should be peculiarly effective in influencing their students and enabling them to see the wisdom and patriotism of continuing study and preparing for technical and professional careers.

It is inevitable, however, that many will be obliged to leave school. Our Catholic educators can be relied upon to do all that is possible to further the campaign for attendance. Will they be ready to meet the other necessity of caring for those who leave prematurely without having finished even the elementary grades?

Already voices have been raised to make continuation courses for such children of obligation. Indeed, the continuation course, or part time arrangement, seems to be the readiest and most satisfactory means of meeting the situation. Catholic schools have not attempted this phase of school work on any general or systematic scale, but some attempts have been made whose success may prompt other endeavors in the future.

Classes in these instances were held at night, after the plan of the night schools. Instruction was limited to the grammar school curriculum, but future plans embraced high school and commercial work.

The greatest difficulty was that of securing teachers. It has seemed too much to ask those who have labored throughout the day to serve again at night, especially in the case of religious whose day begins early and includes the regular offices of conventual life. Volunteer teachers with some experience were asked for, and a sufficient number responded.

The experience of one large eastern diocese is both instructive and stimulating. To quote from the report of the superintendent of schools, which has just appeared: "It is everywhere recognized that the activities of the school should not be confined to the hours of actual class work. The school should be the center of the social life of the parish, should be a community center as far as the parish is concerned. Put on the lowest possible basis, it is an economical error to invest $100,000 in a school building and then utilize that building for but a small percentage of the parish. The school should be a public parish

building and used to the advantage of the entire parish and for the whole Catholic community. That this is feasible has been established beyond all doubt by the social service work conducted in several parishes. Four centers were in cooperation last year—St. Joseph's School, Bloomfield; St. Paul's Cathedral, Holy Rosary, and St. Peter's, North Side. Nearly 2,000 pupils were enrolled, and seventeen races and languages were represented; 111 teachers conducted 45 classes. In six centers settlement work was done among the smaller children. The classes were held in the parish school buildings; 600 pupils were instructed by 70 teachers. The work is conducted by experienced and professional teachers; normal classes have been instituted to train volunteers, and thus a constant supply of competent teachers is ensured. Classes were held in the various English branches, stenography and typewriting, sewing, millinery, singing, dramatics, physical culture, elementary English for girls of foreign parentage, and in a variety of other useful and cultural subjects. A large percentage of the attendance consisted of girls of foreign birth who had not had the advantage of a complete American education. The work is a voluntary one—an offering to the Church and the State under the aegis of the parish school. The example of these four centers could be emulated in many parishes of the diocese: the cause of the Catholic Church and of Catholic education would be the gainer."[1]

Is it not possible that other superintendents have experience or views on this matter which would be of general interest and help either in the way of stimulating further advances along this line or suggesting others? In the interests of our common cause, they are urged to set them forth.[2]

It is evident that continuation work immensely enhances the value of a Catholic school. In a very particular sense it makes the school an additional force in the new citizenship and Americanization movements, and enables it to grasp an opportunity for patriotic service which should not be allowed to pass.

PATRICK J. MCCORMICK.

[1] Fourteenth Annual Report of the Parish Schools of the Diocese of Pittsburgh. 1917-1918. page 20.

[2] The editor cordially extends an invitation to Catholic superintendents, principals, and teachers to use the pages of the REVIEW for any further discussion of this important subject.

THE CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY OF AMERICA

It is with great confidence that I send forth my annual appeal to our faithful Catholic people in every diocese of the United States in favor of the Catholic University of America. The usual time, the First Sunday of Advent, has been set aside by our Holy Father for this purpose, and it is my ardent desire that every Catholic man and woman will contribute generously on that day to the support and growth of our highest educational enterprise.

Every day of the great war exhibits the wisdom of those good men who laid so deeply at the National Capital the foundations of this supreme work of American Catholicism. It has become the center of our broadest activities, the site from which have gone forth the inspiration, the knowledge, and the energy indispensable for our Catholic national action. Our Catholic charity workers in every diocese have found in its professors the most helpful guides, and its buildings have been thrown open to them for all larger needs of direction and cooperation.

We have been happy to place the entire University at the disposal of the National Government for the period of the war, and it has taken us at our word. Our buildings have housed this year the Naval Paymasters Corps, a body of nearly six hundred young officers trained by the naval authorities for the comfort and welfare of our sailors on every transport that crosses the ocean.

The Martin Maloney Chemical Laboratory, gift of a generous and far-seeing benefactor, has been turned over to the military authorities for most important chemical researches, and sixty government chemists are daily using its facilities with the most wonderful results for the success of our soldier boys on the war-stained fields of France.

About five hundred young men of the Students' Army Training Corps are daily being formed at the University by the military authorities for the purpose of creating a large body of intelligent and devoted army officers. If we had room, we might have taken in over one thousand young men.

A large percentage of our lay professors and some of our ecclesiastical professors have been called by the National Government to set aside their work as teachers and give all their time and ability to the needs of the nation. In other ways also the Catholic University has cooperated cordially and efficiently in the enormous task of winning the war, and thereby placing our people and our institutions beyond all fear of danger from foreign foes. I am truly proud of the war record of the Catholic University, and I gladly commend it to the gratitude of our Catholic people. Without this great institution, we should have had, in these crucial days, no national Catholic center at Washington, visible and active as the center of our Catholic educational thought and power, our charitable activities for the soldiers and sailors, and our Catholic devotion to the glorious success of our millions of brave defenders by sea and land.

After this war our American Catholicism will need the highest type of leadership, in order to deal successfully with the great religious, social, and economic situations developed by the new conditions in which our lives shall be cast. Our Holy Father, the American episcopate, our clergy, and our faithful laity look to the Catholic University as a natural source of this leadership. We all feel that the war is raising the souls of millions of our non-Catholic fellow-citizens to higher ranges of thought. We may not expect a complete adhesion to our Catholic social principles, but we rightly look forward to a greater respect for those immemorial convictions of right, justice, and liberty for which we are struggling; to a more sympathetic study of that sane and reasonable philosophy of thought and life for which the Catholic Church has always stood; to a fairer study of the great historical situations of the past in which the Catholic Church defended herself on moral grounds identical with those on which the American people now stand. More than ever we shall need a young clergy and laity solidly trained along the highest lines of Catholic thought and able to express themselves with broad learning, irresistible logic, and the eloquence of profound conviction. Perfectly trained in the national capital, these young men will go forth

from year to year as the best exponents of our holy religion and our intense patriotism.

Already the twelve colleges of the religious orders and the four large halls of the secular or undergraduate youth are sending out every year many ardent and energetic young priests and young laymen of this kind, who are quickly absorbed by our Catholic people in all parts of the Union.

The Catholic University is doing much for our women in the way of higher studies by its fostering care of Trinity College, where hundreds of our young ladies follow graduate courses under the direction of University professors, and return to bless the homes and communities whence they came. Our Sisters College is rendering an incalculable service to the parochial schools and to the academies of our teaching sisterhoods. Both these colleges have a student body of over four hundred women, and are a true glory of Catholic female devotion to learning and social progress.

Naturally, the many activities of the Catholic University call for an increasing annual outlay; new buildings must be erected, more professors secured, a larger equipment provided, in order to care for the ever-increasing body of students from all parts of our country. I know that our people have been most generous in the purchase of Liberty Bonds and in their contributions to the war drive. But I know also that the Catholic University is very dear to them, and that, in view of the general prosperity, they will not be unwilling to give generously to the great Catholic work of education at Washington of which today non-Catholics speak with the greatest respect, and which appears to them as typical of our Catholic devotion to every branch of learning and our readiness to make great sacrifices at all times in its favor.

Since my last appeal to our Catholic people for their cordial support of the University, two of its original founders, Cardinal Farley and Archbishop Ireland, have been called to their reward, and with them passes away almost entirely the generation of far-seeing and courageous men who laid so deeply its foundations. Divine Providence has spared me to celebrate the golden jubil • of my episcopate, whose chief service I firmly believe to have been the creation of our pontifical University

at the National Capital. That it may grow regularly in numbers and influence is my ardent prayer, being profoundly convinced that no institution offers greater security for the preservation and the diffusion of our American Catholic faith and temper. For that reason, may God bless abundantly all those who contribute to its support and growth or who remember it generously when disposing of their earthly goods.

JAMES CARDINAL GIBBONS, *Chancellor.*

VOCATIONAL PREPARATION OF YOUTH IN CATHOLIC SCHOOLS*

The movement towards attaining and improving vocational education in the state schools has made rapid progress in the last two decades. It grew from the conviction that the large majority of pupils received no adequate preparation for their life-work, as only a small percentage availed themselves of the opportunities afforded by secondary schools. The danger to which a large number of these children was exposed after leaving school at an early age, grew to be a menace to individual and industrial development. Many educators sought the remedy for this evil in a radical change of the educational system, and a course of study so arranged as to afford to the pupils a preparation for their career. On the other hand there were those who strenuously opposed this movement because they considered it undemocratic and tending to the formation of a caste system. The attempt to reconcile these two extremes has caused the introduction of vocational education in addition to the usual courses offered by secondary schools, and resulted in the creation of our ever-increasing number of vocational schools.

A study of the history of Monastic schools reveals the fact that these afforded excellent opportunity for vocational training; but their motive and aim in preparing their pupils for life's work was not, like that of our modern state schools, primarily utilitarian. The success achieved in art and industry was due largely to the motivation that inspired the students of Monastic schools to exert all their powers in the realization of their high ideals. The influence of St. Benedict and his followers changed the then prevalent attitude toward labor, invested manual work with the dignity of prayer, and brought untold blessings upon the people.

In the course of time other agencies undertook the vocational training of children and continued to do so until re-

* A dissertation, by Sister Mary Jeanette, O.S.B., M. A., St. Joseph, Minnesota, submitted to the Catholic Sisters College of the Catholic University of America, in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the degree Doctor of Philosophy.

cently. In the last few decades, however, the social environment of the child has undergone a decided change. Again it devolves upon the school to offer to the pupil sensory-motor training in addition to the training of the mind and heart. The same problem that confronts the state schools must also be solved by Catholic teachers. The limited resources of the Catholic schools render it more difficult for them to provide industrial training. In the state schools the financial burden is considerably lightened by state and federal aid. However, Catholic educators are anxious to provide our pupils with every advantage that can be secured, and it is their ambition that the pupils attending Catholic schools receive the very best preparation for their future work. It is the purpose of this dissertation to indicate the causes and outline the history of the vocational education and vocational guidance in the state schools; to compare the motives that prompt this movement with the motives that prevailed in the Monastic schools; and to indicate ways and means which are available for the development and guidance of vocation in our Catholic schools.

The term "vocation" has at the present time a variety of meanings. Literally it means a calling, as does the Latin "vocatio" from which it is derived. This meaning is retained in the Catholic Church, where the call to the religious life is designated as a vocation. By modern writers and educators it is used to denote a career, an occupation; and by some authors it has even been restricted to those occupations in which manual and industrial laborers are employed. In its widest sense vocation is a call to the life-work of each individual, whether this be to serve God in religion or in the most humble occupation.

The teaching of the Church, the history of her institutions, the example of the saints, but above all the Christ-Child, are the guides of the Catholic teacher in the sublime work of vocational preparation of youth.

CAUSES LEADING TO THE INTRODUCTION OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN THE STATE SCHOOLS

The Centennial Exposition at Philadelphia caused American manufacturers to compare our products with those of other

countries.[1] This comparison revealed the fact that only the abundant resources which our country commands enable us to compete in the markets of the world with goods produced in Europe. In every instance of successful competition this has been due, not to superior handicraft, but to the abundance of cheap raw material easily obtained in America. Each succeeding year, however, it became more apparent that the supremacy in international trade rests on the basis of manual skill. Schools for art in industry were established soon after the above-mentioned exposition, and a decade later manual training schools came into existence in manufacturing cities. Though an improvement on the system then prevailing, these were unsatisfactory in regard to the purpose for which they had been planned because what was taught in the manual training school was not sufficiently related to the specific occupation in which the child would later be engaged. Here we find the first incentive to vocational training in the state school system of our country; it was the need of better trained workers that suggested the schools as a means to supply the required skill.

Meanwhile the complaints about the school system increased in number and intensity. Employers claimed that pupils coming from the schools lacked initiative, intellectual capacity, and habits of order and promptness—qualifications which are necessary for success in their work. A similar complaint came from the higher institutions of learning, the universities and colleges. Parents complained, saying that even if they were willing to make sacrifices so as to afford the children a prolonged term of training and education, it did not secure for the children any advantage in their future career, but on the contrary, often served to "train them away from the forge and the shop."

The most alarming feature was the tendency of the pupils to leave school at the first opportunity that presented itself. They were convinced that the education received in the schoolroom was not adapted to their future needs, and too often there was sufficient reason for this conviction. The school failed to

[1] Bulletin, 1916, No. 21.—*Vocational Secondary Education*, Washington, D. C., p. 10.

attract the child, and compulsory education laws were necessary to secure attendance until the child had reached at least the age of fourteen years. Practically 100 per cent of the pupils remain in school up to that age, but 50 per cent leave school at the age of fourteen years.[2] At this period of the child's life home restraints become weaker, in many cases all authority over the child and power of guidance is lost.[3] The industries offer little by way of training or advancement before the age of sixteen and little by way of financial compensation.[4] If these children find any employment it is of such a nature as to form eventually an obstacle to their advancement. The Massachusetts Commission on Industrial Education found 25,000 children between the ages of fourteen and sixteen years who were employed in the lowest forms of industry.[5] And the Vocational Bureau reports that at least one-half of this period is spent in complete idleness, on streets and alleys and similar places. Those who find an occupation at intervals drift from job to job and after some years find that advancement is for them impossible. There is no alternative but to keep on in what Meyer Bloomfield calls the class of "Vocational hoboes," employed in "Blind Alley" occupations.[6]

The child's mind is at this age peculiarly susceptible to harmful influences, and for this reason idleness and weakened home influences are especially to be deplored. The exercise of energy is a physical necessity and a safety-valve for the emotions. But when conditions practically enforce a state of idleness the result is disastrous. Two evils that caused alarm among educators and psychologists were attributed to this want of proper occupation for the growing youth. The increase in the number of criminals and the lack of skilled workmen were traced directly to improper employment or lack of employment during this period of transition from childhood to maturity.

In regard to the increase of criminality, E. J. Lickly asserts

[2] Gaylor, G. W., "Vocational Training as a Preventive of Crime," *The Psychological Clinic*. Vol. vii, No. 2, April, 1913, p. 40.
[3] *Ibid.*, p. 40.
[4] A Report on Vocational Training in Chicago and Other Cities, 1912. City Club of Chicago, p. 144.
[5] Weeks, R. M., The Peoples' School, Boston, 1912, p. 182.
[6] Bloomfield, Meyer, Vocational Guidance, Boston, 1911, p. 19.

that "90 per cent of criminals begin their careers as truants."[7] And G. W. Gaylor says, "It is the young man that is the criminal of today. The daring violent crimes are committed by boys under twenty-one years of age," and he concludes by saying that when asked the cause of their defection, "They will tell you that they drifted into crime after being street and night loafers."[8] To show how serious are the consequences of such conditions he cites the following headlines from the press: "Ten Thousand Boys Arrested Last Year," "Four Thousand out of Six Thousand Arrests Last Year Were Boys Under Twenty." (This referred to a city of less than 150,000 inhabitants.) "Over Half of Murderers Last Year Mere Boys." And thus he continues to enumerate similar headings of newspaper articles.[9]

In charitable and corrective work much good has been achieved by offering employment adapted to the ability and pleasing to the nature of the individual.[10] It was suggested to apply similar methods to the normal child and so prevent the evil rather than apply the remedy after it had developed. The theory was not a new one, for many centuries ago Sir Thomas More in his *Utopia* had set forth the futility of punishment as a cure for crime. He insisted that since crime and pauperism were caused by idleness and lack of skill, they were curable only by removing the cause, namely, by training men to do useful work.

This theory has found considerable recognition in recent years, and more than ever is the opinion spreading that probably "child idleness is a more serious matter than child labor."[11]

In some cases it is economic pressure that compels the child to leave school as soon as the law permits, and he is then forced to enter an occupation that is disadvantageous to his future development; but according to recent investigations this is

[7] Lickly, E. J., (Report) "Successful Schools for Truants," *The Psychological Clinic*, Vol. vii, No. 3, May, 1913, p. 86.

[8] Gaylor, G. W., "Vocational Training as a Preventive of Crime," *The Psychological Clinic*, Vol. vii, No. 2, April, 1913, p. 41.

[9] *Ibid.*, p. 42.

[10] Weeks, R. M., *The People's School*, Boston, 1912, p. 185.

[11] *Ibid.*, p. 175.

not generally the reason for discontinuance of school work.[12] The majority of pupils leave simply because they do not find school life attractive. Educational literature of the last two decades abounds in suggestions for arousing and sustaining in children love and interest for school work, especially during the formative period. One of the means advocated most strongly was the introduction of vocational training.

During this period the lack of skilled workmen was felt very keenly, and this too was thought to be due in large measure to the fact that our youths spent their early years in idleness or drifting from job to job in the unskilled occupations. For the time during which the technique of a trade could be most easily acquired was not utilized. Moreover, the irregular, shiftless habits that are usually formed as a consequence of such circumstances proved inimical to business efficiency and hence prevented success in later life.[13]

The young and inexperienced child is strongly tempted to start in an unskilled trade at what seems to him a high wage, rather than enter an occupation that for some time offers little remuneration. Nor will words alone convince him that his best investment is to invest himself by increasing his own potential value. The objective interest that attracted him during the first years of his elementary education has grown too weak to act as a factor in keeping him at school. The course taken by the pupil is determined by subjective interest which results from understanding the necessity, utility, or duty of further preparation.

In order to bring about this subjective interest, to foster and encourage it, teachers and parents were urged to present to children the material benefit that they will derive from careful preparation for a position. When, for instance, they are shown that 50 per cent of our skilled mechanics are foreign born and foreign trained, and that 98 per cent of New York foremen in factories were educated across the water, they will realize that without similar training their opportunities for

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[12] Goldwasser, I. E., "Shall Elective Courses be Established in the Seventh and Eighth Grades?" *The Psychological Clinic*, Vol. vii, No. 8, Jan., 1914, p. 206; also, Harvey, Lorenzo D., "The Need of Industrial Education in the Public School System, Proc. N. E. A., 1909, p. 57.

[13] Weeks, R. M., *The Peoples' School*, 1912, p. 183.

advancement are little indeed; and that habits of carelessness contracted while not engaged in useful work during youth will hinder their promotion.[14] On the other hand, the seeming benefit of a high wage that a young man may receive on entering unskilled labor proves to be less tempting when compared with the salary of a skilled workman or foreman. This comparison shows that only a few years will suffice to compensate for the amount of time and money spent in preparation, while the chances of promotion for an intelligent, skilled, resourceful workman are almost unlimited.

This utilitarian aim is a potent factor in keeping the child occupied with studies and work; it also serves the purpose of those who are solicitous for the social and economic progress of the nation. Whatever increases the productive capacity of the individual necessarily increases that of the nation. The results obtained in other countries, notably in Germany, by systematic and thorough training of youth has evoked our admiration and stimulated the desire of imitation. The present attitude toward this question is expressed by Gillette in these words: "The time comes, however, in the history of every nation when it must educate its people in science and train them in manufactures and industries or it will go down. This higher scientific education is the forerunner of higher prosperity, and the nation which fails to develop the intellectual faculty of production must degenerate, for it cannot stand still."[15]

Political and ethical motives are forced into the background, and purely economic motives form the basis of the modern state school system. The underlying principle of many recent educational treatises is that "each individual born into the world represents an amount of social capital. The social dividend to be realized on the capital depends upon its investment."[16]

Some of the greatest manufacturing establishments in this country have provided special instruction for their apprentices

[14] *Ibid.*, p. 20. Also, Monaghan, J. C., "Should Trade Schools Be Established?" *Proc. N. E. A.*, 1909, p. 607.

[15] Gillette, J. M., *Vocational Education.* New York, 1910, p. 27.

[16] Bonsor, F. G., "Vocational Aptitudes," *Education*, Vol. xxxiii, No. 3, Nov., 1916, p. 146.

so as to secure the requisite knowledge and skill. Systematic, organized, continuous instruction for their workmen was more than compensated for by the superior grade of products thus obtained. But, since only a limited number of houses can afford to maintain schools of this nature, very few children receive the benefit of the courses they offer.[17] To meet the demands of a large number who begin work at an early age it is necessary to provide means that are within the reach of all. According to the Report of the Massachusetts Commission on Industrial and Technical Education "less than 2 per cent of the children who begin work between fourteen and sixteen are employed in the high-grade industries, and 98 per cent in unskilled and low-grade industries."[18] And for these 98 per cent there is little opportunity for advancement; manufacturers assert that "the child who does enter (the low-grade industry) closes behind him the door of progress to a fair living wage."[19]

As there exists a surplus of unskilled labor which is continually increasing, the problem threatens to become serious in the course of time. On the other hand, the demand for skilled workmen is daily increasing and is supplied largely by foreigners. We cannot long hold our place as a nation without better industrial education.[20] It is frankly admitted that markets are gained by us only because we have cheap raw materials, and because of the great scale upon which we have done things, but not because we can do a piece of work better than our competitors could do it.[21] Our manufacturers as well as our social and educational leaders are anxious that we may compete successfully in foreign markets not merely because we command a wealth of natural resources unequalled by any other nation, but also because we have developed manual

[17] Harvey, L. D., "Need of Industrial Education," *Proc. N. E. A.*, 1909 p. 58.

[18] Binzel, A. L., "Modification of Handwork," *Proc. N. E. A.*, 1909, p. 451.

[19] Binzel, Alma L., Modification of Handwork, *Proc. N. E. A.*, 1909, p. 451.

[20] Gillette, J. M., *Vocational Education.* New York, 1910, p. 27; also Partridge, G. E., *Genetic Philosophy of Education.* New York, 1912, p. 138.

[21] Monaghan, J. C., "Should Special Trade Schools Be Established?" *N. E. A. Proc.*, 1909, p. 608.

skill. The enviable position that Germany has gained in the commercial world is largely due to the industrial, industrial-arts, and technical schools, which were established throughout the country and which supplied efficient training to the laborers. "Made in Germany" may be a lie as to the place of manufacture, but it is no uncertain hint as to where articles should have been made to secure first quality. Yet less than fifty years ago the products of that country at our Centennial Exposition were far inferior to those of France and England, and her own representative pronounced them poor and cheap.[22]

The advocates of industrial education urge the claim that if such progress was achieved in half a century by a nation whose natural resources are far inferior to ours, there is no reason why we should be less successful. Our country leads in the production of those materials which the world needs and if we can finish these products in the manner demanded by the consumers, the future of our nation promises to be prosperous indeed. Therefore the advocates of industrial training suggest a system of schools like the system maintained in Germany and in some parts of France and England, or at least similar to this, but in conformity with American ideals.

While this aim appears to be wholly utilitarian, either from the standpoint of the individual or of the nation, the same argument is used by those who desire industrial education as a means of fostering patriotism, altruism, and morality. Love of country is augmented by the knowledge of its greatness and achievements. The pride felt by the citizen of a nation that is foremost in the quality as well as the quantity of products is a strong incentive to patriotism. And reciprocally, the greater the joy a man has in contemplating the glory of his native land the greater will be his readiness to make sacrifices for its maintenance and progress. Good citizenship is essential for the preservation of the state; and the ability to support himself and those dependent upon him is an essential for good citizenship. To increase the competence of the individual, above all, to increase the number of skilled workers, tends to increase the prosperity of the nation, and consequently, to foster patriotism.

[22] *Ibid.*, p. 607.

A strong argument in favor of industrial education is the beneficial effect of systematic and regular training in manual work upon the character of those who are trained. Since industrial education affords the child opportunity to exercise his craving for activity, he is attracted to the school and therefore kept from spending much of his time in idleness and in an environment that is conducive to the formation of evil habits. Besides the negative phase, such activity has also a positive influence for good. Daily work is the strongest factor in developing a man's character.[23] Dr. Geo. Kerschensteiner, superintendent of schools in Munich, insisted on the importance of such instruction as a means of character-building. He attached little value to any teaching of words unless it was accompanied by the action that is inculcated in the lesson. Laboratories, gardens, kitchens, and workshops were by him regarded as the central point in the instruction given in other lessons.[24] He believed that insight is a requisite basis for dexterity, and that dexterity and insight will develop that joy which is gained by the consciousness of excelling in an occupation.[25] Efficiency in work insures success, which in turn gives rise to a legitimate pride that affords satisfaction and pleasure to the individual. The inward joy over well-performed work is a strong incentive to virtuous living. Time has proved the truth of the old proverb, "To be good is to be happy." The converse of this, "To be happy is to be good," is also true. But when an occupation is pursued only for material gain and without that inward joy which results from love of an occupation and consequent success, it is a constant provocation to aversion and illwill.[26]

The definite purpose which the child has in view when engaged in manual work, the application necessary to accomplish that purpose, the accuracy with which each step toward its completion must be carried out, are each and all important factors in the formation of character, and they accomplish what merely mental education cannot do. Foerster, who is deeply interested in the moral welfare of children, says: "It is my own firm opinion that it would be an immense benefit to our boys,

[23] Cooley, E. G., *Vocational Education in Europe*, Chicago, 1912, p. 336.
[24] *Ibid.*, p. 98.
[25] *Ibid.*, p. 99.
[26] Dewey, John, *Democracy and Education*, New York, 1916, p. 370.

and one that would make itself felt more particularly in the sphere of sex, if handwork were made obligatory; above everything else the home education should aim at securing the most precise and careful execution of all household work."[27] The feeling of responsibility for the performance of a certain piece of work is in itself an aid to character building. The pleasure derived from successful labor is very precious even to the adult, and leads to repeated efforts and new victories. Far greater is its influence on the immature youth and the child; they are encouraged to further activity when they see the tangible results of their exertions.

After thus viewing the situation we find that the main causes which led to the introduction of vocational training in the state schools are:

1. The prevention of crime.
2. Desire to increase the productive capacity of the individual.
3. Ambition to augment the nation's progress in manufactures and trade.
4. Desire to secure morality and happiness through satisfactory occupations.

(To be continued)

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[27] Foerster, F. W., *Marriage and the Sex Problem*, translation by Booth, M., New York, 1912, Part II, p. 205.

COMPULSORY MILITARY TRAINING IN THE SCHOOLS

Detailed reports from London regarding the great new Education Act which Parliament has passed remodelling from the ground up England's entire educational system, show one striking omission, an omission upon which Americans may well ponder:

The act contains no provision whatsoever for compulsory military training.

From one point of view, it is a magnificent tribute to the sound English spirit. Even in the midst of war, with Germany a stone's throw away, England can study her educational problems coolly and decide quietly to keep her schools as training centers for *individualism plus service,* rather than, in a panic, to sacrifice them to the Prussian system of military drill.

And it is all the more striking because England, like America, has had various strenuous organizations dedicated to the job of fastening military training upon the school system. They have been well financed and have held meetings and distributed literature showing the horrors of life without military training; they have had questions "put" in the House, and, in general, have betrayed a fine zeal on behalf of their propaganda. But H. A. L. Fisher, the Minister of Education, told a delegation from the Miners' Federation some months ago that the government had canvassed the question of compulsory drill for the secondary schools and had decided that *the innovation had neither educational nor military value, and would not be adopted.*

Mr. Fisher has proved as good as his word. The education act, which sweeps out of existence eleven educational acts and repeals parts of eleven others, provides for compulsory education up to 14 years. Between the ages of 14 and 18 all English boys and girls must attend either the regular schools, or, if they are obliged to work, then they must attend continuation schools and their employers must help to make that school attendance possible. Physical training is provided with-

out stint, but of military training there is not to be a trace.

England certainly has a quality all her own!

For the epidemic of military training which is sweeping the school boards of the country there is probably nothing to be done save to wait until it has run its course. It is partly due to a recognition that in a prolonged war the 16 and 17-year-old boys might eventually be called to the colors, but chiefly it seems to us to be a form of vicarious patriotism for the elderly gentlemen on the school boards and for the local newspaper editors—those robust guardians of public virtue and the common schools. Public opinion itself is by no means hostile to the innovation.

But what the school boards do today they can undo tomorrow, and it is the business of the teaching profession to make sure that when the epidemic has run its course we shall not be *permanently* saddled with compulsory military training in the high schools of the country. They have too much real work to do to be shackled with the bad pedagogy of military drill.

And it is significant that there is at least one state in the Union which seems to be relatively free from the craze for juvenile military drill. President Wilson's own state of New Jersey has apparently kept its head through these times, thanks to the moderate, sensible and utterly convincing report on the question of compulsory military drill in the secondary schools made by the commission appointed two years ago at the instance of the New Jersey legislature. That report, signed by a commission which included a member of the New Jersey National Guard, disposes effectually of the wild and wooly claims put forth for military drill for growing boys. It has been reprinted for free distribution by the American Union Against Militarism, Westory Building, Washington, D. C., and ought to be in the hands of every teacher and school superintendent in the country for the day when it can be used to restore the schools to their normal course of development.

THE AMERICAN'S CREED

Authorized Version

I believe in the United States of America as a Government of the people, by the people, for the people; whose just powers are derived from the consent of the governed; a democracy in a republic; a sovereign nation of many sovereign states; a perfect union, one and inseparable; established upon those principles of freedom, equality, justice, and humanity for which American patriots sacrificed their lives and fortunes.

I therefore believe it is my duty to my country to love it; to support its Constitution; to obey its laws; to respect its flag; and to defend it against all enemies.

THE STORY OF THE AMERICAN'S CREED

The idea of laying special emphasis upon the duties and obligations of citizenship in the form of a national creed originated with Henry S. Chapin. In 1916-1917 a contest, open to all Americans, was inaugurated in the press throughout the country to secure "the best summary of the political faith of America." The contest was informally approved by the President of the United States. Through Mayor James H. Preston, the city of Baltimore, as the birthplace of the Star Spangled Banner, offered a prize of $1,000, which was accepted, and the following committees were appointed: A committee on manuscripts, consisting of Porter Emerson Browne and representatives from leading American magazines, with headquarters in New York City; a committee on award, consisting of Matthew Page Andrews, Irvin S. Cobb, Hamlin Garland, Ellen Glasgow, Julian Street, Booth Tarkington, and Charles Hanson Towne, and an advisory committee, consisting of Dr. P. P. Claxton, United States Commissioner of Education; Governors of States, United States Senators, and other national and state officials. The winner of the contest and the author of the Creed selected proved to be William Tyler Page, of Friendship Heights, Maryland, a descendant of President Tyler and also of Carter Braxton, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence.

FROM THE "CONGRESSIONAL RECORD"

Authorized Version

The complete proceedings in regard to the official acceptance of the American's Creed may be found in the *Congressional Record,* No. 102, April 13, 1918, from which is taken the following explanation of the doctrinal origin of the Creed:

"The United States of America"—Preamble, Constitution of the United States.

"A Government of the people, by the people, for the people"—Preamble, Constitution of the United States; Daniel Webster's speech in the Senate, January 26, 1830; Abraham Lincoln's Gettysburg speech.

"Whose just powers are derived from the consent of the governed"—Thomas Jefferson, in Declaration of Independence.

"A democracy in a republic"—James Madison, in *The Federalist,* No. 10; Article X of the Amendments to Constitution.

"A sovereign Nation of many sovereign States"—"E pluribus unum," great seal of the United States; Article IV of the Constitution.

"A perfect Union"—Preamble to the Constitution.

"One and inseparable"—Webster's speech in the Senate, January 26, 1830.

"Established upon those principles of freedom, equality, justice, and humanity for which American patriots sacrificed their lives and fortunes"—Declaration of Independence.

"I therefore believe it is my duty to my country to love it"—In substance from Edward Everett Hale's "The Man Without a Country."

"To support its Constitution"—Oath of Allegiance, Section 1757, Revised Statutes of the United States.

"To obey its laws"—Washington's Farewell Address; Article VI, Constitution of the United States.

"To respect its flag"—National Anthem, "The Star Spangled Banner;" Army and Navy Regulations; War Department circular on Flag Etiquette, April 4, 1917.

"And to defend it against all enemies"—Oath of Allegiance, Section 1757, Revised Statutes of the United States.

THE AMERICAN'S CREED FREE

An artistic, illustrated color print of the American's Creed, as approved in Congress, April 13, 1918, with the story of the origin of the Creed and the doctrinal authorities upon which it rests, will be furnished free to teachers who apply through their principals to Matthew Page Andrews, Chairman, Publicity Committee of the Executive Council for the American's Creed, 849 Park Avenue, Baltimore, Maryland.

THE ALBERT MADONNA

All the world knows the story of the Madonna which was dislodged by German shell-fire from its perch on the tower of the parish church at Albert during the first mad rush of the Huns through France in 1914. The statue did not fall, nor was it greatly damaged, but the base was so shattered that it hung precariously over the main road from Amiens to Bapaume, which passed under the very walls of the beautiful old church. For some reason, when the red tide of war swept westward through Albert, the Hun did not complete the destruction of the tower, and the statue still maintained its strange poise after the invaders had been rolled back by the Battle of the Marne. Those were the days of great hope. France was fighting with skill and determination. Britain was steadily increasing her small but wonderful army, and the Russians were advancing almost at a gallop through East Prussia. In fact, there were optimists who thought Germany would sue for peace before Christmas—Christmas, 1914! Some hint of the trend of popular thought was given by the quaint conceit which grew up in the hearts of the people, namely, that when the Virgin of Albert fell (as fall she must, in the opinion of all who saw the statue) the war would end in a victory for France and her allies. But the war did not end, nor did the statue fall, and the opposing armies settled down to nearly four years of trench warfare, with the odds greatly in favor of the Hun and success constantly attending his efforts and those of his ill-omened helpers, the Turks.

The Germans, who certainly never miss a point in their efforts to undermine their opponents' morale, seized on the legend. Varying it to suit their purpose, they spread the story far and wide that when the statue fell France would lose the war. Now the town of Albert possesses a most patriotic and efficient parish priest. No sooner did the Hun version of the story reach his ears than he sought out a skilled blacksmith. The two ascended the half-ruined tower, surveyed the broken base, and so braced and riveted the statue in its recumbent

position that fall it could not until the tower itself gave way. So, for many a day every British Tommy who marched to the front along the road to Bapaume raised his wondering eyes to the Madonna high above his head, and few there were of any denomination who failed to find in its strange attitude a species of benign benediction. At last, during those black days of last March and April, the seemingly impossible happened. The British line bent before the fury of a German assault, aided, as it was, by long-continued fog, and the Hun was once again in Albert. When the British retired the statue was still intact, but, whether by accident or design is not yet known, the Germans brought down the tower, and with it fell the Virgin and Child. And here comes the strange part of the story, to which latest development public attention is now directed for the first time. Hardly a yard farther did the German advance progress. From that day to the end of the war the gray-green hordes were pressed back, slowly at first, but with an ever-increasing celerity which happily ended in their complete defeat. In a word, the luck of the Germans has deserted them since the Virgin of Albert was dethroned. From being the truculent conquerors of nearly all Europe, they are now on their knees whining for mercy. The foregoing facts cannot be gainsaid. Viewed in retrospect, they form one of the most curious and interesting episodes of this, the greatest of all wars.

PRIMARY METHODS

Among the questions which reached us during the past month is the following: The Palmer method of teaching penmanship is employed in our schools and I would like to ask whether the method of using writing advocated for the first grade where the Catholic Education Series is used will interfere with this method?

We answer this in the negative without hesitation. Quite the contrary is the case. While we have not so far dealt with the details of any particular method of penmanship or its teaching, we have insisted that a muscular system be employed from the beginning. Every reasonable precaution should be taken to secure the development of the large movements before the detail finger movements are called into play, hence the necessity of writing large, and on the blackboard, and, also the value of rhythmic movements in preparing for handwriting.

It is true, we advise that the child should be taught to copy such action words and phrases as Run, Hop, Skip; Run to the door, etc., in order to fix more clearly in the mind the details of the visual image of the words, but we would also urge that prior to this the child be taught to hold a short piece of chalk between the fingers in such a way as to practically prevent all finger movement, and then, to the accompaniment of some simple rhythm, be taught to make large, free ovals on the blackboard, calling into play the movement of the body and arm. Anyone familiar with the current muscular systems of penmanship will recognize in this the preliminary drills called for. If these preliminary drills are practiced several times a day, a very short interval will be required before the children will be enabled to write in large free movements the action words called for in the early drills. The drills in the rhythmic movements should, of course, be continued simultaneously with the beginnings of the written exercises called for in first grade work.

We do not, therefore, foresee any conflict between the Palmer method, or any other muscular method of penmanship, and the primary methods advocated by us in reading, spelling, etc.

We are in constant receipt of questions concerning the phonic methods of teaching primary reading. These questions frequently submit a brief defense of one or the other of the methods and then ask for our objections. Let me answer these in a group instead of separately. We might answer sufficiently by simply saying that our objections are not concerned with the details or specific characteristics of any one of the current phonic methods, but with the fundamental principles underlying all phonic methods as a means of teaching word recognition. We have repeatedly stated these objections and would refer inquirers to our Teachers' Manual of Primary Methods and to various articles in the REVIEW dealing with this theme.

Jessie Elizabeth Black, in her chapter on Reading in Public School Methods, has this to say under the heading The Phonic Method: "In this method sounds are used as the basis of instruction. It is a spelling method, but the word is spelled by its elementary sounds, and not by the letter names. The word is pronounced slowly until the sounds come into consciousness, and these sounds are associated with the letters representing them. The method grew out of the child's need to master without assistance the pronunciation of printed words. The alphabet method always combined something of phonics with it, for in dealing with the letters and syllables the pupils naturally gained a certain familiarity with the sounds represented by each letter. The various steps in this method are (1) the single sound, (2) combining sounds to make syllables upon which to build, (3) building words from syllables, (4) pronouncing new words, singly or in sentences, by uttering their component sounds.

"The great objection to the exclusive use of the phonic method at first is that it takes weeks and months to master all the sounds and symbols that the child must have in order to interpret sentences independently. Meantime, his thought power is weakened instead of strengthened and he gains little or nothing of value, from the literary standpoint, until his first three years of school are gone. The great value of the method, when used gradually and by easy stages, while the child is learning to read by any method which emphasizes the

fact that reading is *getting thought* from the printed page, is that it makes the child independent by giving him a key which he may use for himself."[1]

The first of these two paragraphs is a fairly correct general summary of phonic methods and helps to define the grounds of objection. The second paragraph is a curious medley which strikes us as strangely inconsistent. The objection to the "exclusive use" holds equally of any use of phonics as a method of word recognition. Of course we do not object to the use of phonics as a means of perfecting pronunciation, but any directing of the child's attention to the form of the word in such a way as to establish the habit of translating the eye symbol through the ear symbol in order to get at the meaning of a printed word is essentially wrong and every single instance of this character tends to weaken the child's power of seeing clearly the thought elements indicated by the printed word. If the child is to grow into a youth or adult with the power to think clearly under the stimulus or direction of the printed page, there must be a rigid exclusion of the circuitous process of translating the printed word into a spoken word before reaching the thought signified. The child must learn to recognize the new printed word from the thought context and, if he knows the word in its spoken form, he will have no difficulty with its pronunciation. It is for this reason that phonic drills are advocated in connection with teaching pronunciation and are condemned in connection with learning printed word recognition. The independence sought for and advocated by Miss Elizabeth Black as an outgrowth of the use of phonics is secured to a much greater degree by the consistent employment of the process from thought to word.

Artistic interpretative reading is an accomplishment that is, of course, highly desirable, but in our day it is not often called into requisition. For the most part, people read exclusively for thought getting and this main aim must not be defeated by the employment of methods, however efficacious they may be supposed to be, for the development of the child's power of interpretative reading. As a matter of fact, rapid and easy

[1] Public School Methods, Chicago, 1918, Vol. I, p. 94.

thought getting is an indispensable prerequisite for interpretative oral reading, so there is, in reality, no conflict between the two aims. The main aim, that of thought getting, must come first and with it the other aim, interpretative reading, may be secured with reasonable effort.

The child, on entering school, is usually in possession of a considerable spoken vocabulary and he is familiar with a considerable field of natural phenomena. The written words should be selected exclusively from this field. We find ourselves in agreement with Miss Black in the sentiments expressed in the following paragraph:

"In the first year, the child is given familiar words to recognize at sight. Whether the words are of one syllable or more makes no difference, unless it is in favor of the long word. From the very unusualness of its form, such words as butterfly, sunflower, goldenrod and beautiful, if they happen to have been taught, have made a more vivid impression upon the child's mind than the most short words. Moreover, these longer words make a stronger appeal to the imagination. For both these reasons his memory easily retains them. The one caution in the early part of the first year is to be sure that the meaning and spoken form are familiar. The word forms most difficult for first year pupils to remember are short words that closely resemble one another, such as was, saw, these, those, when, where. This difficulty often goes over into the second year, where new words are rapidly added to the child's vocabulary, many of them new in meaning as well as in form."[2]

The closing words of this paragraph are deserving of the teacher's close attention. She should remember that the pedagogical principle *from the known to the related unknown* is peculiarly urgent in dealing with young children. We must be careful to avoid too much newness in the ideas introduced at any time and in any place. Where a considerable step is to be made in the acquisition of new ideas, it is well to do the drilling by the aid of oral language before undertaking it in the reading lesson.

Miss Harris, in her chapter in Primary Language, has many

[2] Public School Methods, Vol. I, p. 154.

good things to say on this theme. The following paragraph has such a direct bearing that we quote it in full:

"What has been the foundation for rapid development in the use of language before the child enters school is natural, spontaneous and far too valuable to be pushed aside by the formal routine that obtains in too many modern school rooms. When all is said and done, it is difficult to improve upon nature's plans for the development of her boys and girls, and the closer teachers can copy her methods of teaching, the more truly successful their work is sure to be.

"In our daily life oral language predominates over the written. So in the primary lessons the time should be devoted largely to oral expression. These oral lessons will in time prepare the way for the written, but they must be so arranged as to strengthen the thought, enlarge the vocabulary and provide for an acquaintance with the better and more beautiful forms of expression. Then sentence forms must come to meet the needs of the increasing thought and the growing desire for expression."[3]

This sums up the situation and says all that really need be said. It may be noted, however, that nature's plan which obtained in the pre-school period, wherein the child acquired his spoken language, is to use a sensory image, in this case, the sound of the word, as the means of direct control of expression and direct entrance to the thought. If we would copy this plan in our endeavor to give the child mastery over a set of visual symbols for the same purposes, we must be careful to make the visual image function independently as an immediate control both of the thought and of its expression.

THOMAS EDWARD SHIELDS.

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[3] Public School Methods, Vol. I, p. 268.

THE TEACHER OF ENGLISH

IMMEDIATE PROBLEMS AND A QUESTION

The victorious and sudden end of the war confronts the country with educational problems which demand a wise and almost immediate answer. We have been in the war comparatively too brief a time to have thought much about post-war reconstruction or readjustment. Such changes of mind as have come to us since 1914 have been necessarily profound evolutions, demanding new conceptions which we have been forming only slowly. The process of forming new conceptions has been enormously hastened since April, 1917, by the destroying of precedents, by the revelations and the discoveries, that have been our happy fate since we entered the war. We have fortunately learned the magnitude as well as the fact of our problems. Now we must take immediate and wise thought of them, because serious consequences for the future impend upon the decision.

On Saturday morning, November 24, in Carnegie Hall, New York City, there was a gathering addressed by the President Emeritus of Harvard, Dr. Charles W. Eliot. His topic was "Defects in American Education Revealed by the War." The full text of the address was printed in the *New York Times* of Sunday, November 25. It will amply repay a study of it, especially in the points on which one joins issue with its distinguished author.

In this place we are concerned chiefly with the matters of the address which are of interest immediately to every teacher of language, or even to every one who may happen to think of language in terms other than pedagogic. We shall abstract from the other sections of the address, so far as they can be disassociated.

Dr. Eliot began by saying: "The war has revealed to the American public the unexpected fact that there is a considerable amount of illiteracy in the population, unevenly distributed among the different States, but disappointingly large on the average—7.7 per cent. This illiteracy was conspicuous

in the Army and Navy, which the Government undertook to recruit rapidly by draft, and was at once seen to present serious obstacles to the rapid training of effective government forces. The public promptly perceived that the prevention of illiteracy was a national interest, which should never have been left to the States without any supervision by the National Government."

He continued: "The organization and training of the National Army brought clearly into view the fact that a significant portion of the young men liable to military service were not acquainted with the English language, and that this ignorance made it more difficult to produce promptly an effective army and navy. Private persons and private incorporated societies had already seen that this ignorance of the English language on the part of alien operatives was impairing efficiency and productiveness in various American industries, and had taken some measures to remedy locally this evil. But these efforts were necessarily limited by lack of money and could only be of the drop-in-the-bucket sort. Here again we discern a national interest and an urgent need for immediate expenditures on the part of the National Government in aiding all State and municipal efforts to teach English, not only to children of alien birth, but to adults as well."

His recommended method of aid was set forth as follows: "The best form of this aid would be a contribution in money for each pupil that has completed a course of instruction covering a specified number of lessons and passed an examination prescribed by the National Bureau of Education. It is the attractiveness of the country as a whole to various alien races which has produced this difficulty in the American Army and Navy and in some important American industries; so that the National Government may fairly take part in abating it. Whether this new function of the Government will become permanent or not will depend on the renewal of immigration from Asia and Southern Europe. Possibly the people who have been coming hither in large numbers from those regions will think that under the conditions of the new peace they will be well enough off in their native lands."

Pointing out the tremendous importance placed on powers of accurate observation in time of war, and insisting that the power of accurate and wide observation is equally important in times of peace, he insists that:

"All American schools must, therefore, add to their present programs, which are based chiefly on literature and mathematics, instruction in the sciences of observation, in the arts and crafts, and in the elements of music, drawing, modeling and architecture; and must give all pupils practice in the use of their own eyes, ears, and hands in productive labor, and in the inductive method of reasoning." Elaborating this theme, he goes on to remark that:

"The war has made plain to multitudes of people what was known before to a few, that human testimony is as a rule untrustworthy, not because the witnesses intended to deceive but because they were unable to see, hear, or describe correctly what happened in their presence. This inability to see, hear, touch, and describe accurately is by no means confined to ignorant or uneducated people. Many highly educated American professional men have never received any scientific training, have never used any instrument of precision, possess no manual skill whatever, and cannot draw, sing, or play upon a musical instrument. Their entire education dwelt in the region of language, literature, philosophy, and history. Their habits of thought permit vagueness, obscurity, and inaccuracy, and their spoken or written statements have these same defects. These facts suggest strongly the urgent need of modifying profoundly the programs of American elementary and secondary schools. They must no longer cling almost exclusively to languages and literature and the elements of mathematics. They must give a considerable part of school time to the sciences and arts, and to the acquisition by every pupil of some skill of eye or hand or both, and at the same time must increase rather than diminish the amount of training they give in memorizing to hold, in discrimination between the true and the false, the good and the bad, in the selection of premises, and in sound reasoning."

Recognizing the entrance, at this point, of the old problem

of *"interest"* in his new program of study and how to maintain it, he advances a suggested method:

"It is an essential part of the new methods of instruction that the pupils should be stimulated to hard work in every subject, including the literary ones, by interesting them in doing things themselves rather than by reading about objects or events or being told about them. All teaching should be as concrete as possible, and every subject, including, of course, the literary and historical subjects, should be illustrated by the study of personages, places, charts, diagrams, and pictures. It is indispensable to success with the new subjects that the pupils should use their own eyes and hands and themselves describe and coordinate their own observations. In the study of the notes and records they have made out of their own observations, they must apply their own powers of memory, discrimination and expression."

"Every child," he continues, "should be encouraged and induced to acquire the habit of giving an account to the teacher or the class or the whole school of anything he has read or seen or done. An excellent way to teach English composition is to provide a daily exercise, oral or written, or both, for every pupil in this sort of description, the teacher restricting her own performance to showing the pupil where he or she has failed in simplicity, directness, or accuracy of description. It is important that all subjects whenever possible be taught from actual objects to be accurately observed and described by the pupils themselves. Pictures or drawings of objects will not answer the same purpose. It should also be the incessant effort of the teacher to relate every lesson to something in the life of the child so that he may see the useful applications of the lesson, and how it concerns him. Again, much time may be saved in teaching the familiar as well as the new subjects in the existing programs by teaching groups of subjects together in their natural and inevitable relations."

Dr. Eliot was not unmindful of the mechanical and physical aspects of the problem. "In order to introduce the new subjects and the new methods into the existing schools of the United States," he asserts, "it would be necessary to reduce

somewhat the number of periods assigned to the memory subjects and to mathematics, and also to utilize more hours in the school day and reduce the long summer vacation. The new subjects and methods require a good deal of bodily as well as mental exertion, so that they can be added to the school program without risking the health of the children, provided that all schoolrooms, including shops and laboratories, be well ventilated. Moreover, much of the instruction in geography and agriculture can be given out of doors, the teachers taking part in the necessary excursions."

We have endeavored to set forth Dr. Eliot's point of view as completely and fairly as possible. The text of the address has appeared too late to permit any satisfactory analysis or discussion in this issue of the REVIEW which is now going to press. Inasmuch at the address raises the whole question of the post-war methods of teaching English, which will certainly be ushered in with January 1, 1919, consideration of the problems involved must necessarily go over until the forthcoming first issues of the New Year.

A storm of discussion will inevitably and at once break over the whole question, now that Dr. Elliot has raised it publicly. It is a fitting pedagogic question with which to usher out the days of battle. The answers to it will be in turn a fitting and, we have every reason to hope, a satisfactory prelude to the days of peace just ahead. T. Q. B.

NOTES

There are as many American plays produced in London as English plays here, and their success is distinctly greater.

The free and independent press, however humble its origin and limited its appeal, is in France and England, the Colonies and America, according to Hiliare Belloc, the chief intellectual phenomenon of our time. In protest against the so-called "Capitalist" papers, there has arisen in these countries a growing crop of periodicals and papers which are really "organs of opinion." In spite of its disabilities, this free press is not only a growing force, but a salutary one. This free press,

originating to a large extent from motives of propaganda, has, of course, had stamped upon it a character of disparate particularism. Yet Hilaire Belloc confesses:

"Wherever I go, my first object, if I wish to find out the truth, is to get hold of the Free Press in France as in England, and even in America. But I know that wherever I get hold of such an organ it will be very strongly colored with the opinion, or even fanaticism, of some minority. The Free Press, as a whole, if you add it all up and cancel out one exaggerated statement against another, does give you a true view of the state of society in which you live. The official press today gives you an absurdly false one everywhere. What a caricature—and what a base, empty caricature—of England or France or Italy you get in the *Times,* or the *Manchester Guardian,* the *Matin,* or the *Tribuna!* No one of them is in any sense general—or really national.

"The Free Press gives you the truth; but only in disjointed sections, for it is *disparate* and it is *particularist*: it is marked with isolation—and it is so marked because its origin lay in various and most diverse *propaganda:* because it came later than the official press of capitalism, and was, in its origin, but a reaction against it."

Talking recently with the librarian of a town of some forty thousand inhabitants, the novelist Arnold Bennett was impressed by two things. The first was the huge amount of fiction consumed. The second was the dissatisfaction of novel-readers with the novels they read. Some novels, it is true, they genuinely liked, but the number of such novels was small. According to the librarian, the majority of his clients spent most of their reading time in reading stuff which could only be described as a bore, while waiting their turn for the handful of books that really pleased them.

In view of these facts, Mr. Bennett found himself asking: Why does the average reader persist in reading only fiction? Why does he not try that other half of the library which is never taken from its shelves? How comes it that he chooses unpleasing or half-pleasing fiction in preference to an adven-

ture among the literature of knowledge? Is he a fool? Is he deficient in brain power? Does he partake of the stupidity of the ass? Mr. Bennett's answer to his own question is: "No; the truth is that he has ample brains to cope with the literature of knowledge; but the truth is also that he is afraid of the literature of knowledge." Mr. Bennett continues (in the New York *Bookman*):

"Idiotic methods of education have inspired him with a religious fear of knowledge. In his memory, knowledge is associated with tedium, compared with which the tedium of a tedious novel is wild exhilaration. Give him a book of knowledge and he is inclined to treat it as he is inclined to treat an income-tax paper, namely, to hide it away and forget that it exists."

Mr. Bennett's method for overcoming fear of knowledge is as follows: "Boldly pursue knowledge for half an hour a day steadily for a fortnight, or—if you have the courage of a lion—for an hour a day for a month, and then see whether fear has not given place to a deadly fascination."

Writes Philip Hone in his diary, "While I was shaving this morning at 8 o'clock, I witnessed from the front window an encounter in the street nearly opposite, between William C. Bryant and William L. Stone, the former one of the editors of the *Evening Post*, the latter the editor of the *Commercial Advertiser*. The former commenced the attack by striking Stone over the head with a cow-skin; after a few blows the men closed and the whip was wrested away from Bryant and carried off by Stone." This happened on April 20 of the year of grace 1831. From all of which one may infer that poets sometimes lose their temper in righteous indignation, especially when they go in for journalism.

THOMAS QUINN BEESLEY.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES

RECONSTRUCTION IN EDUCATION

Reconstruction is now going on in every phase of our social and national life. It is not within our power to consider whether we will reconstruct the aims and means of education just now or wait until after the war. We are in the midst of reconstruction caused by the needs and by the ideals which the war has stirred into action.

What we may or may not do is to allow ourselves to drift on with reconstruction from day to day without seeking to understand or to guide the outcome. But it is evidently our duty, both to the present and the future, not to drift more than can be avoided. However insistently we may feel that the first duty of every citizen is to give every possible immediate help toward winning the war we must understand that victory means victory in the field by the people who maintain an understanding control and guidance of their political and institutional activities. If the administrative means suited to democracy are not perfected for our larger duties, or if these means are neglected for the exercise of an assumed dictatorship not limited to war activities, then the results of any victory in the field are not assured of their purpose to give freedom to civilized nations.

The most striking evidence that educational reconstruction is on the way is the fact, made more manifest every day, that great educational activities must be carried on in support of the needs of each of the great departments of administration in our national government. To the Department of the Interior is assigned the Bureau of Education, but the Department of Agriculture is mainly an educational administration for farmers and the sciences of agriculture; the Department of Commerce and Labor is rapidly realizing that education is an important element in its efforts to adjust human relations under changing industrial conditions; the educational work in the Army and the Navy Departments becomes important

today and in a democratic world will be a much greater feature in training citizens to police themselves as far as possible; and the same thing is true of foreign relations and of the relations of the Treasury Department to bankers and to the people.

In fact, the American conception of democracy rests upon a more or less unconscious assumption that the means of education must very largely take the place of those means of government which are used with the uneducated in securing that union or personal support and national direction of activities which civilization requires. In this conception Americanism is different from every phase of socialism proposed in Germany or Russia or even that of the English Labor Party. Americanism, as I understand it, is not properly an ism at all. It rests upon the faith in the nature or character of humanity when living under conditions of free opportunity for union to develop its powers. It is not bound to any doctrine requiring conformity to a particular creed in religion or politics or economic justice. It depends upon the human heart to find the solution of any social situation as much as upon the intellect and much more than upon any set formula of government. It is Americanism only because here a liberty loving people found a separate continent which afforded conditions of free opportunity under which to develop and to enter into independent union on the basis of fellowship. This Americanism will not, I believe, attempt to impose any set creed or formula or government upon any other people. What it has discovered that it must do is to oppose, not the creed or formula of any people when concerned honestly with their own affairs without overreaching upon others, but to oppose every conscious governmental action which purposes by force, if necessary, to dominate the lives or resources of others unjustly. It is evident that facing this great situation Americanism must now be embodied in our national life as it relates itself to other peoples. As a nation we must act with faith in mankind. We must meet all humanity with a heart beating with the

sympathy of fellowship and guiding our action with more certainty than any Machiavellian intelligence ever could.

But Americanism requires a sturdy life in mankind. Be up and doing "with a heart for any fate" is its mandate. Americanism rests upon regard for natural law and belief that sufficient knowledge of the laws of cosmic forces and of human powers can and must be attained to guide the heart of mankind to the greatest civilization. Americanism means progress. It has no place for limitations or for desires of static conditions of living, however rich the conditions to be accepted may be. There are always realizations of the deeper and larger nature of man to be sought. As Hartley B. Alexander says, "No free state can afford to foresee its destinies, except the one destiny of holding open the possibility of choice."

GEORGE A. BROWN,
School of Home Education, September, 1918.

EFFECT OF ENVIRONMENT

That thousands of children in rural and small town communities are being deprived of a fair chance for normal development is the assertion of the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor in a report just issued on conditions which tend to juvenile wrongdoing in the country.

One hundred and eighty-five New York State children who were implicated in some sort of wrongdoing and who came from 144 different families were carefully studied, and their family surroundings were scanned in an effort to discover what had led them astray. Most of the children were of normal mentality, although about one-fourteenth were noticeably deficient. But lack of opportunity for moral and mental training, for recreation, and lack of variety of interesting occupations with promising futures led these children of normal mental power into delinquency. All these conditions were found to be accentuated in the subnormal child who, in addition to the opportunities of a normal child, needs to be provided with some adequate means of diagnosis and appropriate treatment.

The 21 New York State communities described show a type of social life that, as the report points out, can "unfortunately be matched in many places." Vivid, detailed descriptions show how the familiies and communities of these 185 little children failed to safeguard them from early temptations to wrong-doing which will doubtless lead, in many instances, to wasted, stunted lives. Although in nearly half the cases the child lived in its own home with its father and mother there was a lack of control on the part of the parents and a disregard on their part for the rights of others which must have contributed to the child's misdeeds.

The attempt is made to analyze the offenses of the children, which range from mere mischief or general waywardness to serious offenses against property and to sex delinquencies. The purposeless mischief often develops because the loneliness of the open country and the "deadness" of the little town "give the child a stupid denial to answer his search for sociability." Without wise leadership the youthful energy is all too likely to run the gamut of small mischief and then degenerate into serious misdeeds.

What were these 21 typical communities doing to save themselves from the moral and financial burden of caring for the misdemeanants their lack of foresight had produced? Prisons for criminals are admittedly an expensive way to safeguard the moral fabric of a community.

In searching for social factors which make for the child's sound development the investigators looked first to the district school with its honored tradition of useful service. The report shows how "pitifully inadequate" the tiny educational unit in the back country, with its isolation and slight equipment, usually is to meet modern demands. The church, the report states, holds a real and valuable place in the socializing of the country, but it was found to be making most unequal use of its opportunity.

What is there to care for the child who has been called to account by the community for his offenses? The justices of the peace, under whose jurisdiction many of the chilren considered

in the study came, were generally found to give but cursory attention to the childrens' needs, and to be ill-informed as to how their cases should be handled. Local influence conduces in many instances to lenience where sterner treatment would have been for the child's better interest. The report adds to the evidence which favors a separate court for the treatment of juvenile offenders. The impracticability of securing skilled probation officers and juvenile court judges, however, for each small community leads to the recommendation of a county juvenile court, and the extension of the powers of such courts where they now exist, in order that the court may reach the remotest corners of each county—that "a probation officer may be available in every inhabited section of rural as well as urban communities."

THE NEED OF SCIENTIFIC COMMERCIAL ACCURACY

The good old-fashioned American method of doing business on a "hunch" will not do for the future, according to Burwell S. Cutler, Chief of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, Department of Commerce, who addressed the American Specialty Manufacturers' Association at Cleveland recently on the subject of scientific commercial accuracy.

"Just as a general of armies in the field searches out the ground ahead of him before he advances, so should a sales manager in command of field forces know intimately every phase of his territory," said Mr. Cutler. "In war, the commander gives no order for an advance until every valley ahead, every hill, road, and defensive position, is known as completely as may be. If he takes a chance, it is because a certain degree of failure due to ignorance of conditions will not prejudice his campaign seriously. The disaster that is bound to follow habitual speculation or hazard is today exemplified on a mammoth scale by the collapse of the German Government, which gambled the destiny of the German people on the chances of world dominion and lost out because it had not accurately counted its opponents and their resources.

"Likewise we have seen many a business concern dashed on

the rocks of its own temerity. The appalling percentage of business failures in the United States is due largely to ignorance—ignorance of cost accounting, ignorance of market, ignorance of proper production methods, and ignorance of the human element composing labor. As a nation we have generally depended on luck and hustle to produce the big results of which we are so fond. Evolution, stability, and a long look into the future have appeared to us somewhat superfluous to success on a big scale. This is not the attitude of all American concerns, of course, for there are some of national scope whose foundations are laid solidly in the concrete of study, experimentation, and laboratory research.

"Things are not as they used to be. Our industrial capacity in many directions exceeds the normal demand, whereas formerly the reverse was the case. A sign of this is found in the widespread concentration of trade individuals into associations respecting actual costs and the necessity of trade integrity. Another sign of over-capacity is the attraction to overseas trade that is operating on every hand."

"Outside of our own boundaries," said Mr. Cutler, "we are more certain than ever to meet with competition of merchants who know thoroughly what they are doing. The European merchant is a grubber after facts. He studies his field like a jewel appraiser with his microscope or a lace buyer with his millimeter rule. His banks go carefully and patiently into the personal life of a possible customer; his official advisers take into account even the political views of consignees, and his utilization of racial preferences for color, style, size, etc., is infinite. His habit of action is still that of a painstaking artisan who slowly fashions a commodity and then carries it from household door to door, inquiring about the health of the family while his commodity undergoes pitiless inspection upside and downside by the entire household. He does business minutely on a large scale.

"So indeed do many of our largest concerns after they have reached the point of size where laboratories and a scientific staff can be afforded, but too many of our concerns continue to do business on a 'hunch.'"

WOMEN'S CLUBS TO HELP U. S. SCHOOL GARDEN ARMY

Secretary Franklin K. Lane, through the Bureau of Education, has put in operation a practical plan for the mobilization of the school children of the country for garden work. The responsibility for bringing this opportunity within reach of the children rests very largely upon the women. The General Federation of Women's Clubs, through its Department of the Conservation of National Resources, is urging its membership of two million women to aid in the work for school gardens. The citizens of a community who do not make it possible for the school superintendents, principals, and teachers to conduct school gardens, according to the plan of the United States School Garden Army, are not awake to their full duty. Collective support and individual service must be given and public interest aroused. We must vision the possibilities and keep in mind that the aim of the United States School Garden Army is to nationalize, unify and to greatly extend the work now being carried on by the school children of America.

"In the garden the mysteries of nature are unfolded. Under sympathetic guidance the child's imagination is stimulated and his powers of observation are developed. Trees, flowers, waving grain field, bird, mountain and valley will come in time to have their full meaning to the boys and girls who are taught to see nature's lessons in their first garden.

"Now is the time to plan for next summer's work. If the fathers and mothers do their part the children will do theirs, and the little citizens of tomorrow will be better equipped than ever before for the responsibilities of life, and will be glad and happy in their ability to give immediate service."

COOPERATION OF YOUNG PEOPLE IN THE CHURCHES DESIRED FOR PRODUCTION OF RED CROSS MASQUE

Percy MacKaye has written "The Roll Call," a masque of the Red Cross, to be produced during Roll Call Week, December 16 to 23, by local chapters and auxiliaries of the American Red

Cross, with the cooperation of young people's societies, Sunday Schools, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Camp-fire Girls, and other groups of young people.

The masque is especially designed to express and promote the great central motive of Roll Call Week: universal membership for the Red Cross.

To serve that definite purpose, the performance of the Masque—which takes not more than an hour—culminates in the direct enrollment of members, under auspices of music and pageantry new and impressive to participants and audience.

Being designed for use on any practicable scale, large or small, in great cities or in little towns, the theme and action of the Masque are elemental and simple, involving only nine speaking characters and thirteen pantomimic characters, to which are added participating groups and leaders, enlarging the elements of pageantry to whatever extent local conditions render appropriate.

Preparations for performances of the Masque are simplified by easily contrived costumes. Practical working designs of these costumes, in color and in black and white, are contained in the printed text of the Masque, together with specific instructions and suggestions for amateur producers and performers written by the author and the costume designer.

Musically, "The Roll Call" involves the use of community chorus or choir, whose voices may be accompanied, according to the scale of production, by orchestral or band music, or organ. No new music has been composed for the Masque, the new chorus words being sung to hymn and choral music already familiar and readily procurable.

Besides these numbers, a Prelude and an Epilude of Community Singing are adaptable to local conditions—the Epilude of song taking place during the final enrollment of members among the audience, and during the pageant recessionals of the Red Cross Workers.

The production of the Masque must be made a *community* affair. It would be disastrous to have it done by an individual church or made merely a "society stunt." In any case, it

should be done only with the cooperation of the local chapter or auxiliary through whom the book and the Masque may be obtained.

PRIZE ESSAY CONTEST

Under the auspices of the American School Peace League: A Plan to Cooperate with President Wilson in Making a League of Nations an Essential Part of the Peace Settlement.

Two sets of prizes, to be known as the Seabury Prizes, are offered for the best essays on one of the following subjects:

1. Teaching the Idea of a League of Nations. Open to seniors in normal schools.

2. The Essential Foundations of a League of Nations. Open to seniors in secondary schools.

Three prizes of seventy-five, fifty and twenty-five dollars will be given for the best essays in both sets.

Judges

CHARLES MCKENNY, President, State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Michigan.

MISS CLARA H. SMITH, State Normal School, San Jose, California.

CARLETON B. GIBSON, Superintendent of Schools, Savannah, Georgia.

JOHN W. CURTIS, Principal, Isidore Newman Manual Training School, New Orleans, Louisiana.

JOHN R. KIRKE, President First District Normal School, Kirksville, Missouri.

FRED H. NICKERSON, Superintendent of Schools, Medford, Massachusetts.

Contest Closes March 1, 1919

Conditions of the Contest

Essays must not exceed 5,000 words (a length of 3,000 words is suggested as desirable), and must be written, preferably in typewriting, on one side only of paper, 8 x 10 inches, with a margin of at least 1 1-4 inches. Manuscripts not easily legible will not be considered.

The name of the writer must appear on the essay, which should be accompanied by a letter giving the writer's name, school, and home address, and sent to Mrs. Fannie Fern Andrews, Secretary, American School Peace League, 405 Marlborough Street, Boston, Mass., not later than March 1, 1919. Essays should be mailed flat (not rolled).

The award of the prizes will be made at the Annual Meeting of the League in July, 1919.

Information concerning literature on the subject may be obtained from the secretary.

For the past two years, in view of the universal interest in international relations, many principals have introduced the contest as a part of the regular school work. This year we are asking the schools to incorporate the essay contest into the regular work as part of our plan to cooperate with President Wilson in making a League of Nations an essential part of the Peace Settlement. Schools taking part in the contest are asked to send in their best essay, which will be submitted to the judges.

Successful Contestants in last Year's Contest

Normal School

First Prize—Miss Alice A. Doner, State Normal University, Normal, Illinois.

Second Prize—Miss Margaret A. Hanley, State Normal School, Salem, Massachusetts.

Third Prize—Miss Bonnie Kate Harrell, Winthrop Normal and Industrial College, Rock Hill, South Carolina.

Secondary School

First Prize—Miss Esther J. Lowell, Hollywood High School, Los Angeles, California.

Second Prize—Joseph Patty, High School, Santa Monica, California.

Third Prize—Miss Blanche McMullen, High School, Westchester, Pennsylvania.

Public School Methods, New Edition, fully illustrated from photographs, paintings and drawings, six volumes, each averaging over 500 pages, and an Index and Teachers' Guide. Chicago: The Methods Company, 1918.

These volumes, bound in buckram and half-morocco, make a very handsome set of books. The entire field of elementary education is covered by a group of educators whose names are a sufficient guaranty that the work is representative of the public schools of this country. The authors, moreover, hold important positions in the educational field. A mere enumeration of their names and of the subjects which they treat in these volumes will be sufficient to give any teacher an understanding of the scope and character of the work.

William Chandler Bagley, Ph.D., Professor of Education, Columbia University, treats Psychology, Adolescence, Methods of Teaching; Philander P. Claxton, M.A., Litt.D., United States Commissioner of Education, treats Geography; Charles A. McMurry, Ph.D., Professor of Education, Peabody University, treats Type-Studies in Geography and History; Henry G. Williams, Ped.D., State Supervisor of Normal Schools for Ohio, treats Number, Arithmetic; C. F. Hodge, Ph.D., Professor of Biology, University of Oregon, contributes studies on the Fly, Mosquito and Grape; Jessie E. Black, Ph.B., Ed.B., Critic Teacher, University of Chicago, and Principal, Drake Public School, treats Primary Reading, and is editorial critic on primary subjects; Lawton B. Evans, A.M., Superintendent of Schools, Augusta, Ga., treats History; James H. Fleming, Ph.M., head of the Department of English, Chicago Normal College, treats Language, Composition and Grammar; Achsah M. Harris, A.B., Professor of Primary Education, Kansas State Normal School, treats Primary Language; W. H. Lancelot, Instructor in Soil Chemistry, Iowa State College, treats Agriculture; Henry Turner Bailey, Director, Chautauqua School of Arts and Crafts, treats of Vocational Guidance; Archibald

Bennett, Manager, Bennett Publishing Company, treats Vocational Guidance; Emelia Goldsworthy, Director of Art, Western State Normal School, Michigan, treats Drawing, Picture Study. John Cavanaugh, LL.D., President, University of Notre Dame, Indiana, is Reviewing Editor; Edward J. Ward, United States Bureau of Education, treats The Community Center; Frank E. Thompson, B.A., Professor of Education, University of Colorado, and N. A. Young, County Superintendent, St. Louis County, Minnesota, discuss School Management; Agnes E. Howe, A.M., Principal, Training School, California State Normal, and Florence Holbrook, Principal, Forrestville School, Chicago, contribute Special Day Programs; William S. Sadler M.D., Professor of Therapeutics, and Lena K. Sadler, M.D., Directors of Chicago Institute of Physiologic Therapeutics, discuss Character Building; Katherine Martin, Instructor in Kindergarten, University of Chicago, writes on the Kindergarten; Willis E. Johnson, President, The Northern Normal School, South Dakota, contributes Civil Government; Patty Smith Hill, Assistant Professor, Kindergarten Education, and Annie E. Moore, Instructor, Kindergarten Education, Columbia University, contribute Story-Telling, Dramatization, Games, Plays, Songs; Hettie M. Anthony, Ped.B., A.M., Head of Home Economics Department, Fifth Missouri Normal School, treats Domestic Science; Mrs. E. E. Olcott, A.M., Head of Teachers' Course, Central Normal College, Indiana, treats Phonics; Edward F. Worst, Director of Manual Training, Chicago Schools, treats Construction Work; Lucy D. Hale, Department of Drawing, State Normal School, Wisconsin, treats Construction Work; Mary R. Pierce, Department of Music, American Book Company, treats Music; Samuel C. Schmucker, West Chester State Normal School, Pennsylvania, treats Elementary Science; Alice G. McCloskey, Cornell University, treats Nature Study; Anna E. McGovern, Professor of Primary Methods, Iowa Teachers' College, treats Geography; P. W. Horn, Superintendent of Schools, Houston, Texas, treats Reading; Ronald R. Davis, Editor, "Something To Do" Magazine, treats Handicraft; George E. Martin, Super-

intendent, Training School, State Normal College, Nebraska, contributes Type Studies in Reading. William F. Rocheleau is general editor. A dozen artists contribute the illustrations, which are good, and in same cases really beautiful.

The list of topics treated and the names of the authors indicate that the work is really an encyclopedia of elementary methods. This, in fact, is the first characteristic of the work to impress itself upon the reader. Everything he meets as he glances through the volumes seems quite familiar. The orderly arrangement and the completeness of the collection give the work value for ready and easy reference. It is scarcely necessary to add that the work is uneven in value and at times quite inconsistent, but these things are well-nigh inseparable in compilations and composite work.

The second chapter of the first volume deals with primary reading. It contains a very striking mixture of the new and the old, of the good and the bad, in methods of primary reading. The opening paragraph contains the old error that it is the business of the children in the first three grades to learn to read in order that they may be able to get thought thereafter. "Reading is the most important study with which the child has to deal in the first three years of his school life. The art of reading once mastered, all literature is within his reach, and the pupil passes at once from the dependent to the independent stage; hence it is of vital importance to him that his teacher be skilled in methods that will enable him to learn rapidly with the least expenditure of time and nervous force."

We have discussed elsewhere the falsity of this viewpoint. There is no time in the whole school period in which the child is in such urgent need of wholesome fundamental thought-material as during the first three years. On the seed-truths which are planted and nourished into life during those years must depend, in large measure, the harvest which will be reaped in mature life.

The stories and the thought-material suggested by Miss Black are not only devoid of those salient characteristics demanded by the ideals of Catholic education, but they are

frequently unwholesome, though not offensive on the surface. Evidently, the thought-content is, in the author's mind, of very secondary consideration; and there is no attempt whatever at unity or organization in the thought-material. A number of different readers should be used, and those having the easier words and sentences should be used first. Much reading with sharp contrast in content and form is the thing desired. Evidently, facility in word-recognition and sentence-forms is the only object worth considering in the mind of this principal and critic teacher.

The same inconsistency is to be observed in the methods advocated. "Various methods have been employed for teaching beginners to read. Some of these, especially the alphabet method, are of historic interest only. The methods now in use include the best features of a number of methods, such as the word method, the phonic method, the sentence method, etc. While each of these is briefly discussed in the following pages, no one of them is recommended to the exclusion of the others. The ingenious teacher will find something good in all, and from a study of them will construct a method of her own which she can use more successfully than any text-book method."

Miss Black's pages amply sustain this promise of hodge-podge methods and evince either complete ignorance of the underlying principles of the methods in question or a desire to court favor with the various schools. Consistency with any one of the methods might give results worth while, but an acceptance of conflicting and contradictory practices can leave little hope for worthy results.

Chapter V of the same volume deals with primary language and exhibits a striking contrast to Miss Black's chapter. The opening paragraph is a clear statement of a fundamental principle of the utmost importance. "Language was invented because of the need to express thoughts and emotions and to preserve records for convenient reference. It follows, then, that the early work in language teaching should arouse thoughts and inspire emotions such as will stimulate heart

and brain and place the child where he will want to ask questions or to utter spontaneous exclamations, statements, or commands. When any form of the sentence bursts from the child because he has gained a new thought or emotion and feels the need of expression, the teacher may be sure that interest is at white heat, and that effective teaching may be done. Unless this point of contact between teacher and pupil is secured, the work is usually lip-service, a smatter of terms with the soul left out."

It would be difficult to find a better expression of this principle, and we would look far to find a more effective contravention of it than in the work outlined for primary reading.

Miss Harris, throughout the chapter, fulfills the promise of the opening paragraph. Many of her paragraphs would prove valuable to all elementary teachers; as, for example: "The most fundamental thing in the teaching of English is not form but material. While the general aim of language is simply to express thought, it is essential that the child have something interesting about which he is to think and talk, as well as that he early form right habits in the use of correct English. Teachers now are trying to place their pupils where they talk or write because they have something to say—something they want to say—not because they have to say something. It is natural for the child to speak of the things in which he is interested—of his fellow-mates and the things in his environment. Things endowed with life and emotion more rapidly gain the child's interest, hold his attention, and call forth spontaneous expressions because they have awakened thought more rapidly and freely."

There is much in the chapter on story-telling, dramatization, games and songs that is commendable, but there is a noticeable absence of the thought-content suitable for Catholic children. The authors should not be blamed for this, since conditions in the public school render it well-nigh necessary to omit the religious elements which constitute by far the most valuable material for interesting a child, refining his imagination, for building his character, and for unifying his

outlook upon the world. There is little excuse, however, for such bad psychology as that upon which the music theory advocated rests. We quote from Volume I, page 432: "The song taught by imitation—the rote song—is the basis of the child's education in music. By this means the first musical sense is aroused. The child learns to hear tones and to imitate tones in melody. The songs not only arouse the musical sense, but, if properly selected and presented, they will quicken all the sensibilities and make the pupil a keener and more appreciative observer of all things."

Those who have seen the work in our Catholic schools which use the Catholic Education Music Course will have a vivid realization of the utter falsity of the statement just quoted. In this course rote songs are entirely absent. The child's voice is trained and placed and his ear cultivated by consistently following the visual symbols. The child's interest is held throughout, he is given the ability to express his thoughts and feelings in music with independence and without loss of interest. The second-grade children using this method have a far better command of musical expression than the eighth-grade children who begin with rote songs.

Enough has been said to show that the work before us may be used with profit by the intelligent, discriminating teacher, but its statements must not be accepted indiscriminately.

THOMAS EDWARD SHIELDS.

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